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DEPOSITION AND CHARACTERIZATION OF BARRIER METALS



KEVIN D. LEEDY

AFRL/SNDI, BUILDING 620 2241 AVIONICS CIRCLE, STE. 20 WRIGHT-PATTERSON AIR FORCE BASE, OH 45433-7322

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1. Summary

Increasing complexity and shrinking sizes of integrated circuits necessitate the development of new materials and processes to meet current system requirements of high performance and reliability in smaller electronic assemblies. In order to achieve the system performance, materials with incompatible physical and electrical properties are often placed into direct contact with one another. Applications such as area array interconnection of Si devices using lead/tin solders, vias in Si integrated circuits and gold contacts to GaAs circuits require the use of barrier metals to physically and chemically separate materials that would otherwise react and form undesirable by-products or significantly decrease the reliability of the electronic system. This effort was initiated in order to advance the understanding of basic mechanisms and influences of processing on the performance of barrier metals. Deposition of the barrier metals was conducted using physical vapor deposition (PVD) techniques. Due to the non-equilibrium processing conditions that occur during PVD, unique barrier metal alloys that could not be fabricated by thermodynamic equilibrium methods were developed. Characterization of the processing and materials was performed to better understand the essential mechanisms required for high quality barrier metals.

The accomplishments of this effort are documented in the following papers published in Materials Research Society conference proceedings:

"Stress, Microstructure and Temperature Stability of Reactive Sputter Deposited Ta(N) Thin Films," Thin Films – Stresses and Mechanical Properties VIII, Vol. 594, Materials Research Society, Pittsburgh, PA (2000).

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2. Stress, Microstructure and Temperature Stability of Reactive Sputter Deposited Ta(N) Thin Films

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2.1 Abstract

Interest in tantalum nitride thin films for use as diffusion barriers in Cu-based microelectronic interconnects merits the study of tantalum nitride thin film properties as a function of deposition conditions and elevated temperature exposure. In this investigation, the influence of nitrogen content and post deposition annealing on the stress, microstructure and resistivity of Ta(N) films was analyzed. Ta(N) thin films were deposited by reactive dc magnetron sputtering of a Ta target in Ar/N_2 gas mixtures. With an increasing N_2 to Ar flow ratio, the as-deposited crystal structure of the films changed from β -Ta to bcc Ta with N in solid solution to $TaN_{0.1}$ to Ta_2N and finally to TaN. The as-deposited Ta(N) stress, grain size and resistivity of the films were found to be strongly dependent on the phase(s) present. Films with less than 20 at. % nitrogen concentration displayed large compressive stress increases during 650°C anneals in flowing N_2 . Phase transformations to Ta_2N occurred after 650°C anneals in films with nitrogen concentrations from ~ 15 to 25 at. %. Microstructural characterization using transmission electron microscopy and x-ray diffraction, and chemical analysis by x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy and Auger electron spectroscopy of the Ta(N) films were used to identify the as-deposited and transformed phases.

2.2 Introduction

Numerous studies have examined the properties of tantalum and tantalum nitride (Ta(N)) thin films due to their potential application as diffusion barriers between Si and Cu contacts in integrated circuits. An optimal barrier layer should have a dense, amorphous microstructure, a smooth surface morphology, thermal stability with Cu and Si and low film stress [1, 2]. Amorphous thin films are considered more effective diffusion barriers than polycrystalline thin films because of the lack of grain boundaries which function as fast diffusion paths [3]. The thermal stability of Ta(N) films is an important consideration with respect to crystal phase, grain growth, stress and resistivity. Sun [3] investigated the influence of 500 to 800°C vacuum anneals on the structure and composition of Ta(N) films. Stavrev [4] examined the composition and microstructure of Ta(N) is not well defined or known. Barrier failure is generally considered to be when Cu has migrated through the barrier to the substrate. Min [5] and Holloway [6] determined that a Ta_2N diffusion barrier between Si and Cu was stable up to 650°C and 700°C, respectively. Takeyama [7] found a fcc TaN barrier to be stable up to 750°C.

Only limited work has addressed the intrinsic and elevated temperature stress of sputter deposited Ta(N) thin films. Venkatraman [8] showed an as-deposited intrinsic compressive

stress range of 500 to 3000 MPa for reactive sputtered Ta(N) films deposited with 0 to 85 % N_2 in an Ar plasma. Kim [9] measured an as-deposited compressive stress range of 500 to 1200 MPa with 2 to 9 % N_2 in the plasma. Cabral [10] observed the generation of large compressive stresses associated with 400 °C anneals on Ta and Ta (2 at. % nitrogen) films and attributed the stress change to oxygen incorporation in the film. Clevenger [11] studied the *in situ* stress and resistance change of Ta thin films as a function of temperature and found a predominant stress relief associated with the transformation of the tetragonal β -Ta phase to the cubic α -Ta phase occurring from 600 to 800°C.

In this paper the microstructure, stress and resistivity of reactive sputtered Ta(N) films in the as-deposited state and after 650°C anneals was studied. The results show that some Ta(N) phases undergo phase transformations at around 550°C while other Ta(N) phases are stable up to 650°C. In addition, annealing induces large compressive stress increases in some Ta(N) films.

2.3 Experiment

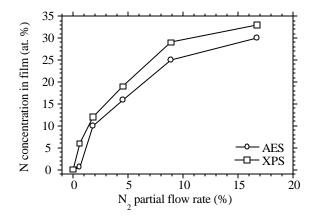
Tantalum nitride thin films were reactive sputtered from a 99.95% pure Ta target using a Denton Vacuum Discovery 18 dc magnetron sputtering system with a base vacuum of 1.4 x 10^{-6} Pa. Thermally oxidized (111) silicon wafers of 75 mm diameter and holey carbon support films on 3 mm grids were used as substrate materials during the study. The SiO $_2$ thickness was 1 μ m. A mass flow regulated Ar-N $_2$ sputtering pressure of ~ 0.53 Pa and 300 W forward power were held constant resulting in a nominal deposition rate of 0.5 nm/s. The N $_2$ partial flow rate (the ratio of the nitrogen flow rate to the total flow rate of nitrogen and argon) ranged from 0 to 17 %. A water cooled substrate holder was used without external heating for all of the depositions. Films deposited onto the holey carbon grids were 20 nm thick while films deposited onto the Si wafers were 300 to 500 nm thick.

A laser reflectometry Flexus 2900 thin film stress system was used to measure the intrinsic stress of the as-deposited Ta(N) films on the Si substrates and to measure film stress in situ during annealing. The nitrogen purged Flexus had a 5°C/min heating rate from 25 to 650°C, a 5 min. hold at 650°C and then a 5°C/min cooling rate to 25°C. Rapid thermal anneals in an AG Associates Heatpulse 210 of films on holey carbon grids were performed at 650°C for 120 sec in flowing Ar-5%H₂ forming gas. X-ray diffraction of 1cm x 1cm samples from the wafers was done using a Rigaku D-MAX III thin film diffractometer with a fixed, low angle (5°) Cu Kα radiation source and a rotating sample holder. Particle sizes were measured using transmission electron microscopy (TEM) of films deposited on holey carbon grids using a Philips CM 200 at 200 kV. Particle sizes were determined by a statistical analysis of grain diameters in bright and dark field broadface images. Film composition was determined with a Physical Electronics model 5700 multiprobe x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) system utilizing monochromatic Al Kα radiation. The N 1s photoelectron signal appears as a shoulder on the low binding energy side of the Ta 4p_{3/2} signal, and the N 1s signal was retrieved by subtracting the appropriate intensity of the Ta 4p_{3/2} signal from a pure Ta film prepared with no nitrogen flow during growth. The Auger electron spectroscopy (AES) measurements were also made using the Physical Electronics model 5700 multiprobe with 10 nA at 5 keV incident electron beam.

2.4 Results

Composition and Resistivity

The film nitrogen concentration measured by AES and XPS versus N_2 partial flow rate during deposition is plotted in Fig. 2.4.1. After an initially high consumption of nitrogen, the films begin to saturate with nitrogen at ~ 10 % N_2 flow rate. Although the general trend in nitrogen content was similar for AES and XPS, the uncertainty in values can be attributed to several items including preferential sputtering, overlap of Ta and N peaks and the application of sensitivity and correction factors. For clarity considerations, only AES values of film nitrogen content are used in subsequent plots.



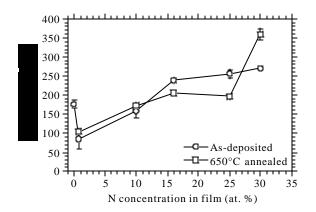


Fig. 2.4.1 Nitrogen concentration in Ta(N) films vs. N_2 partial flow rate during deposition.

Fig. 2.4.2 Resistivity vs. nitrogen concentration in Ta(N) films, as-deposited and after 650°C/5 min. anneal in flowing N₂.

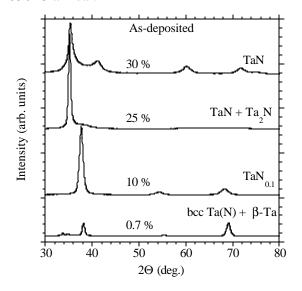
The resistivity of tantalum films deposited with no nitrogen flow in the plasma was 170 μ ? cm, consistent with the ß-Ta phase and confirmed by x-ray diffraction. The ß-Ta phase is a metastable tetragonal Ta phase and has been observed in numerous studies [5, 11-14]. As shown in Fig. 2.4.2, as little as 0.7 at. % nitrogen in the film caused a substantial decrease in resistivity to 70 μ ?cm and corresponded to a Ta phase change to bcc Ta with likely some nitrogen in solid solution. The difference between 70 μ ?cm and the bulk resistivity of Ta of 13 μ ?cm is attributed to the fine grain, highly defected thin film structure. With higher nitrogen film concentrations (above 10 at. %), films consisted of tantalum nitride phases with increasing nitrogen contents and correspondingly increased resistivity up to 250 μ ? cm. Following 650°C anneals, films with low nitrogen contents showed slightly increased resistivity while resistivity decreased in intermediate nitrogen content films and started to increase substantially in films with greater than 25 at. % nitrogen. Changes in resistivity are attributed primarily to the differences in resistivity of the transformed crystal structures. Ta and TaN_{0.1} films exhibited no change in resistivity while Ta₂N film resistivities decreased and TaN film resistivities increased.

X-ray Diffraction

Figure 2.4.3 shows a sequence of x-ray diffraction patterns from Ta(N) films with a range of nitrogen concentrations. With no nitrogen in the plasma, the film was composed of the metastable β -Ta phase. The addition of 0.7 at. % nitrogen in the film produced a mixture of β -Ta and bcc Ta with nitrogen in solid solution. Film microstructures went from nitrogen-deficient

tantalum nitride phases to nitrogen-rich tantalum nitride phases as film nitrogen content increased. Between 10 and 16 at. % nitrogen film concentrations, films consisted of $TaN_{0.1}$ and mixtures of $TaN_{0.1}$ and Ta_2N . The Ta_2N and fcc TaN phases were present in a 25 at. % nitrogen film. At 30 at. % nitrogen, the only crystalline phase present was TaN.

Anneals at 650° C for 5 min. in the Flexus indicated the phase stability of the various tantalum nitride phases. The nitrogen free β -Ta film crystal structure remained unchanged after 650° C anneals but transformed completely to bcc Ta after additional annealing at 775° C, within the same transformation temperature range reported by Clevenger [11]. Figure 2.4.4 shows representative x-ray diffraction patterns of 650° C annealed Ta(N) films. The metastable TaN_{0.1} phase persisted nearly completely in a 10 at. % film but decomposed substantially to Ta₂N in a 16 at. % film. A film with nearly the same nitrogen content transformed completely to Ta₂N. The TaN crystal structure in the high nitrogen content film (30 at. %) was unaffected by the 650° C anneal.



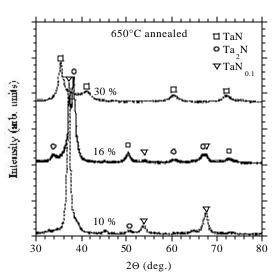


Fig. 2.4.3 X-ray diffraction patterns of asdeposited Ta(N) films with various amounts of nitrogen content (at. %).

Fig. 2.4.4 X-ray diffraction patterns of Ta(N) films with various amounts of nitrogen content (at. %) after 650°C anneal.

Particle Size

Particle sizes of Ta(N) films were measured by TEM with the results plotted in Fig. 5. The as-deposited film particle sizes decreased from ~ 13 nm to 6 nm with increasing film nitrogen content. Nitrogen is known to decrease grain sizes in physical vapor deposited films. The grain size decrease with increasing film nitrogen content is consistent with a 25 nm to 4 nm reduction observed by Sun [3]. Figures 2.4.5 and 2.4.6 show that anneals at 650 °C caused substantial grain growth in metastable Ta(N) films with 10 to 25 at. % nitrogen associated with transformations primarily to Ta₂N. The diffraction patterns on the left and right in Fig. 2.4.6 are of TaN_{0.1} and Ta₂N, respectively. The transformed Ta₂N grain sizes were up to 60 nm in diameter in a film with 25 at. % nitrogen. Low and high nitrogen content films showed no measurable grain growth.

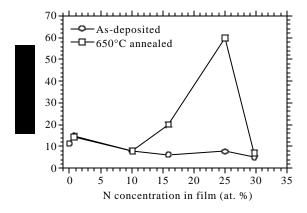


Fig. 2.4.5 Particle size of Ta(N) films vs. film nitrogen content measured by DF TEM, as-deposited and after 650 °C rapid thermal anneal.

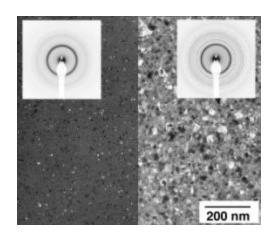


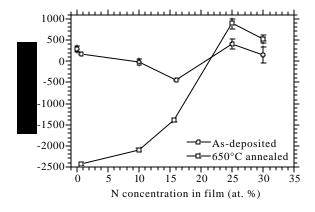
Fig. 2.4.6 Bright field TEM images with inset diffraction patterns of Ta(N) film with 16 at. % nitrogen. As-deposited (L) and after 650°C rapid thermal anneal (R).

Film Stress

The stress of as-deposited Ta(N) films ranged from approximately 500 MPa tensile to 500 MPa compressive (Fig. 2.4.7). Although the most compressive stresses occurred in films with the highest Ta₂N phase content, a direct correlation between crystal phase and film stress has not been established.

Following anneals at 650°C, films with low nitrogen concentrations displayed substantial increases in compressive stress. Cabral [10] identified a similar stress change associated with oxygen incorporation in Ta and Ta with 2 at. % nitrogen films during a series of 400°C anneals; AES measurements confirmed the increased oxygen content. In this study surface oxidation manifested as a cloudy haze on films with low nitrogen contents due to oxygen in the Flexus. AES analysis of oxygen concentration in annealed films is ongoing. A film with no nitrogen content delaminated during annealing due to the excessive compressive stress generated (> 3 GPa). However, as film nitrogen content increased, the compressive stress increase became smaller. At approximately 22 at. % nitrogen, the annealed film stress change became tensile and stress in films with higher nitrogen concentrations remained nearly constant at approximately 400 MPa higher than the as-deposited stress. In these films, more tantalum was likely bound in the form of nitride phases so less tantalum was available to getter oxygen.

As shown in Fig. 2.4.8, a slight negative slope in stress vs. temperature plots was observed from 25 to $300\,^{\circ}$ C. Cabral [10] attributed this slope to thermal coefficient of expansion mismatch between the SiO₂ substrate and Ta film at temperatures up to $250\,^{\circ}$ C. More substantial stress changes were observed in films with 15 to 25 at. % nitrogen starting at approximately $450\,^{\circ}$ C: a tensile stress change up to 900 MPa occurred in as little as 8 min. followed by a more gradual compressive stress decrease as the $650\,^{\circ}$ C annealing temperature was approached. The magnitude of this "hump" was most pronounced in films with 25 at. % nitrogen. The stress transition was found to begin at lower temperatures as film nitrogen content increased. We speculate that the "hump" corresponds to the transformation of metastable Ta(N) phases to the Ta₂N phase based on x-ray diffraction of as-deposited and annealed films. The magnitude of the "hump" parallels the amount of Ta₂N formed.



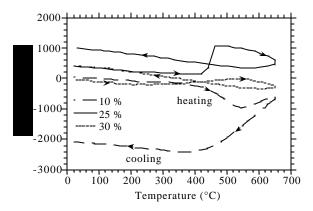


Fig. 2.4.7 Film stress vs. nitrogen concentration in films, as-deposited and after 650°C anneal.

Fig. 2.4.8 Stress vs. temperature for Ta(N) films with various nitrogen concentrations.

2.5 Conclusions

Reactive sputtered tantalum nitride thin films displayed a wide range of stable and metastable crystal phases depending on film nitrogen concentration. As-deposited grain sizes were nominally 10 nm for all nitrogen concentrations. Grain growth during 650°C anneals occurred only in films with 15 to 25 at. % nitrogen. The grain size increase to 60 nm was associated with the formation of Ta₂N. Anneals at 650°C caused substantial compressive stress increases in films with less than 20 at. % nitrogen concentration and modest changes in film resistivity. Further correlation of annealed Ta(N) film oxygen content to compressive stress increases is in progress.

Acknowledgments

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2.6 References

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3. Stress, Microstructure and Temperature Stability of Reactive Sputter Deposited WN_{x} Thin Films

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3.1 Abstract

Tungsten nitride (WN_x) thin films can be used as Schottky barriers in high power, high temperature semiconductor devices or as diffusion barriers between Cu, low-k dielectric and silicon because each application requires a thermally stable film. Therefore, it is important to understand the thin film properties of WN_x as a function of deposition conditions and elevated temperature exposure. In this investigation, the influence of nitrogen content and post deposition annealing on the stress and microstructure of reactive dc magnetron sputter deposited WN_x films was analyzed. With an increasing N_2 to Ar flow ratio, the as-deposited crystal structure of the films changed from α -W to β -W to amorphous WN_x and finally to W_2N . Rapid thermal anneals up to 650°C resulted in large tensile stress increases and phase transformations to W_2N in the nitrogen-containing films. Grain growth during annealing decreased as the concentration of nitrogen in the film increased. The nitrogen content in the films was determined using x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS).

3.2 Introduction

Tungsten nitride thin films have been studied extensively for use as thermally stable Schottky contacts to GaAs [1-4]. Another potential application of WN_x is as a barrier to Cu diffusion in Si-based integrated circuits. An optimal barrier layer should have a dense, amorphous microstructure, a smooth surface morphology, thermal stability with Cu and Si, low film stress and minimal thickness (10 to 20 nm) [5, 6]. Amorphous thin films are considered more effective diffusion barriers than polycrystalline thin films because of the lack of grain boundaries which function as fast diffusion paths [7]. Several transition metals and their nitrides are good candidate materials, including tungsten nitride [8]. Because of high temperature anneals used in the fabrication of semiconductor devices, the thermal stability of WN_x films is an important consideration with respect to crystallinity, grain growth and stress.

Fabrication methods for WN_x films include metal-organic chemical vapor deposition [9], plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) [10, 11] and reactive sputtering [12-14]. Lee [15] investigated PECVD WN_x as a diffusion barrier between Al and Si while So [13] studied reactive sputtered WN_x . The Cu barrier performance of reactive sputtered WN_x was examined by Uekubo [14] with 25 nm thick WN_x films and Suh [12] with 5 to 100 nm WN_x thick films. Alternatively, a large grained reactive sputtered WN_x film fabricated by Yongjun [16] exhibited low stress, high surface smoothness and high thermal stability. It was found that a low nitrogen concentration in a W seed layer followed by a rapid thermal anneal in N_2 formed a large grained WN_x barrier.

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The intrinsic stress of WN_x thin films has been addressed in only limited studies. Yu [1] measured a compressive stress range of ~ 3 to 1.75 GPa in 300 nm thick WN_x films deposited at 5 mTorr with N_2 partial flows from 0 to 40 %. Lee [10] studied the influence of PECVD W/WN_x bilayers on the intrinsic film stress.

In this paper the influence of film thickness and nitrogen content on the microstructure and stress of reactive sputtered WN_x films in the as-deposited state and after 400 and 650°C anneals was studied.

3.3 Experiment

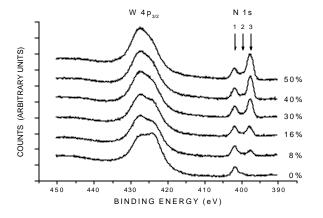
Tungsten nitride thin films were deposited from a 99.95% pure W target using a Denton Vacuum Discovery 18 dc magnetron sputtering system with a base vacuum of 1.4×10^{-6} Pa. A mass flow regulated Ar-N₂ sputtering pressure of ~ 0.53 Pa and 250 W forward power were held constant resulting in a nominal deposition rate of 0.3 nm/s. The N₂ partial flow rate (the ratio of the nitrogen flow rate to the total flow rate of nitrogen and argon) ranged from 0 to 50 %. Thermally oxidized (100) silicon wafers of 75 mm diameter and holey carbon support films on 3 mm grids were used as substrate materials during the study. Films deposited onto the holey carbon grids were 20 nm thick while films deposited onto the Si wafers were either 20 or 200 nm thick. A water-cooled substrate holder was used without external heating for all of the depositions.

The intrinsic stress of the WN $_x$ films was calculated using the wafer curvature technique and Stoney's equation. A laser reflectometry Flexus 2900 thin film stress system was used to measure the intrinsic stress of the as-deposited WN $_x$ films on the Si substrates and to measure film stress *in-situ* during annealing. The nitrogen purged Flexus had a 5°C/min heating rate from 25 to 650°C, a 5 min. hold at 650°C and then a 5°C/min cooling rate to 25°C. Rapid thermal anneals of films on holey carbon grids were performed in an AG Associates Heatpulse 210 at 400 and 650°C for 120 sec in flowing Ar-5% H $_2$ forming gas. X-ray diffraction (XRD) of 200 nm thick samples was done using a Rigaku D-MAX III thin film diffractometer with a fixed, low angle (5°) Cu K α radiation source and a rotating sample holder. Particle size and crystal structure of 20 nm thick films were measured by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a Philips CM 200 at 200 keV. Particle sizes were determined by a statistical analysis of grain diameters in bright and dark field broadface images. Film composition was determined with a Physical Electronics model 5700 x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) system utilizing monochromatic Al K α radiation.

3.4 Results

Composition

The atomic concentration of nitrogen in the films was determined from XPS measurements. These measurements were made several weeks after the films had been grown, so the surfaces were affected by the atmospheric environment in which they had been stored. XPS analysis showed that the surfaces were oxidized and contaminated with carbon. The W $4p_{3/2}$ and N 1s photoelectron signals obtained from these surfaces are shown in Fig. 3.4.1, and were used for the quantitative analysis. (Note that the spectra have been offset for clarity). Since the W $4p_{3/2}$ and N 1s photoelectrons have similar kinetic energies, about 1060 and 1090 eV



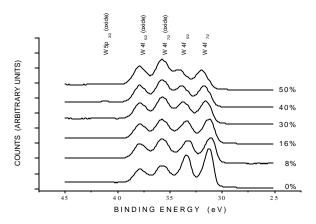


Figure 3.4.1 The W $4p_{3/2}$ and N 1s XPS spectra obtained from the films grown with N_2 partial flows of 0, 8, 16, 30, 40, and 50%.

Figure 3.4.2 The W 4f and $5p_{3/2}$ XPS spectra obtained from the films grown with N_2 partial flows of 0, 8, 16, 30, 40, and 50%.

respectively, their intensities will be similarly attenuated by surface contamination. The N 1s signals are comprised of three peaks (1, 2, and 3). The intensities of peaks 1 and 2 from each sample are fairly constant, whereas the intensities of peak 3 increase with N₂ flow rate. Peak 3 corresponds to nitrogen in the film, whereas peaks 1 and 2 are due to surface reactions where the nitrogen is in a higher oxidation state. (Carbon and the nitrogen peaks 1 and 2 all decreased very rapidly with inert gas sputtering of the surface). The W 4p_{3/2} lineshape also varies between samples and is due to different degrees of surface oxidation of the films. The degree of surface oxidation was determined from the W 4f and 5p_{3/2} photoelectron spectra, as these peaks are relatively sharp and shifted to higher binding energy due to surface oxidation. These W spectra are shown in Fig. 3.4.2. The fractions of the total non-oxide tungsten signals obtained from the W 4f and 5p_{3/2} (barely visible in the figure) spectra were then applied to the total W 4p_{3/2}. intensity to remove the amount due to surface oxidation. The nitrogen concentrations in the films were then obtained by calculation using Scofield cross-sections, and asymmetry parameter, analyzer transmission and atom size corrections [17], and are plotted in Fig. 3.4.3. The increase in film nitrogen content is also reflected by an increase in resistivity from 16 to 244 µ?cm for 0 and 43 at. % nitrogen films, respectively.

Microstructure

The crystal structure of as-deposited WN $_x$ films with no nitrogen was bcc α -W and remained α -W after rapid thermal anneals of 400 and 650°C. Films with 12 at. % nitrogen were β -W (A-15) and transformed completely to W $_2$ N after 650°C anneals. Films with 29 and 35 at. % nitrogen had a predominantly amorphous structure in the as-deposited condition and after 400°C anneals. The W $_2$ N phase existed in the as-deposited and annealed 43 at. % nitrogen films. All films with nitrogen contained W $_2$ N after 650°C anneals and films with > 29 at. % nitrogen exhibited some conversion of W $_2$ N to α -W after 650°C anneals. The conversion of WN $_x$ to α -W due to annealing was studied extensively by Lin [11, 18]. A phase map by Suh [12] shows the same general trend in WN $_x$ microstructure evolution with temperature using 450 to 850°C furnace anneals for 1 hr. As-deposited and furnace annealed WN $_x$ data from Yu [1] at 700°C/30 min. also exhibited the same type of crystal structure development. Table 3.4.1 shows the WN $_x$

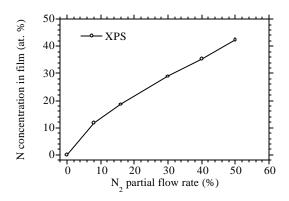


Figure 3.4.3 Nitrogen concentrations in WN_x films as a function of N_2 partial flows during growth.

Nitrogen Content (at. %)	As- deposited	400°C	650°C
0	α-W	α-W	α-W
12	β-W	β -W +	W_2N
	-	α-W	
19	a-WN _x +	β-W +	W_2N
	α -W	α -W	
29	a -WN $_x$	a - WN_x	α -W +
			W_2N
35	a -WN $_x$ +	a -WN $_x$ +	$W_2N +$
	W_2N	W_2N	α-W
43	W_2N	W_2N	$W_2N +$
			α-W

Table 3.4.1 Crystal structure of WN_x films as-deposited and after 400 and 650°C rapid thermal anneals for 2 min. (a- WN_x , amorphous WN_x).

crystal phases of the 20 nm thick as-deposited and rapid thermal annealed films. For films with multiple phases present, the first species listed was most prevalent. XRD of 200 nm thick WN_x films showed the same structures.

 WN_x particles were 5 to 10 nm in diameter in the as-deposited state. Figures 3.4.4 and 3.4.5 show that rapid thermal anneals caused grain growth in films with lower nitrogen contents, associated primarily with transformations to W_2N . The diffraction patterns on the left and right in Fig. 3.4.4 are of amorphous WN_x and W_2N , respectively. The highest nitrogen content films showed no measurable grain growth after anneals, attributed to the stability of W_2N . Accurate grain size measurements in films with no nitrogen were complicated by a nonuniform morphology. Although some of the WN_x films are listed as amorphous, ~ 10 nm diameter particles were observed and measured.

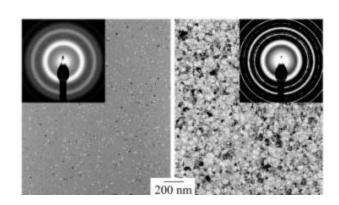


Figure 3.4.4 Bright field TEM images with inset diffraction patterns of WN_x film with 19 at. % nitrogen. As-deposited (L) and after 650°C rapid thermal anneal (R).

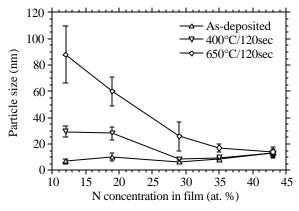
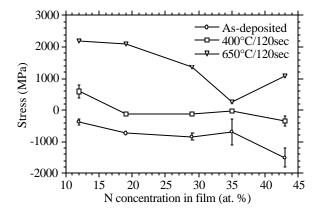


Figure 3.4.5 Particle size of WN_x films vs. film nitrogen content, as-deposited and after 400 and 650°C rapid thermal anneals.

Film Stress

As-deposited 20 nm thick WN_x films exhibited compressive intrinsic stresses that became more compressive with increasing film nitrogen content. Figure 3.4.6 shows stress as a function of nitrogen content for as-deposited films and films subjected to rapid thermal anneals at 400 and 650°C. The rapid thermal anneals resulted in tensile stress increases in all films with a maximum increase of > 2000 MPa compared to the as-deposited films. Factors contributing to the generation of tensile stress include grain growth [19] and differential thermal expansion between the film and substrate.

The difference in intrinsic stress between 20 and 200 nm thick WN_x films is shown in Fig. 3.4.7. As-deposited stresses of both thickness films were similar except in lower nitrogen content films where 200 nm films exhibited more tensile stresses. Furnace anneals at 650°C resulted in large tensile stress increases in 200 nm thick WN_x films while the only significant stress change in 20 nm thick WN_x was a tensile increase in 43 at. % nitrogen films. Furnace anneals were performed in flowing N_2 , so the propensity for film oxidation is higher than in the forming gas used in rapid thermal anneals.



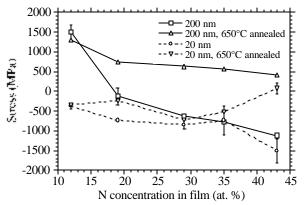


Figure 3.4.6 Film stress vs. nitrogen concentration in 20 nm thick WN_x films, asdeposited and after 400 and 650°C rapid thermal anneals.

Figure 3.4.7 Film stress vs. nitrogen concentration in 20 and 200 nm thick WN_x films, as-deposited and after 650°C furnace anneals.

3.5 Conclusions

Reactive sputter deposited tungsten nitride thin films displayed a range of stable and metastable crystal phases depending on film nitrogen concentration, from α -W with no nitrogen concentration to W_2N at high nitrogen concentrations. XPS was used to calculate the film nitrogen contents. As-deposited particle sizes were nominally 10 nm for all nitrogen concentrations. Maximum grain growth up to 90 nm after 400 and 650°C rapid thermal anneals occurred in films with the lowest nitrogen contents. Rapid thermal anneals and furnace anneals at 650°C caused substantial tensile stress increases in most films, decreasing grain growth with increasing nitrogen concentration, and a predominantly W_2N crystal structure.

Acknowledgments

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4. Organic Solution Deposition of Copper Seed Layers onto Barrier Metals

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4.1 Abstract

Spontaneous deposition of copper seed layers from metal bearing organic based solutions onto sputter deposited titanium, titanium nitride, and tantalum diffusion barrier thin films has been demonstrated. Based on electrochemically driven cementation exchange reactions, the process was used to produce adherent, selectively deposited copper metal particulate films on blanket and patterned barrier metal thin films on silicon substrates. The organic solution deposited copper films were capable of acting as seed layers for subsequent electrolytic and electroless copper deposition processes using standard plating baths. Electroless and electrolytic copper films from 0.1µm to 1.0µm thick were produced on a variety of samples on which the organic solution copper acted as the initial catalytic seed layer. The feasibility of using organic solution deposited palladium as a seed layer followed by electroless copper deposition has also been demonstrated. In addition, experiments conducted on patterned barrier metal samples with exposed areas of dielectric such as polyimide indicated that no organic solution copper or palladium deposition occurred on the insulating materials.

4.2 Introduction

The incorporation of low-k dielectrics and copper interconnects in the fabrication of high speed silicon integrated circuits (ICs) requires significant changes to the current method of using blanket deposition and etch back processes. While physical vapor deposition (PVD) techniques, such as sputtering, appear to be viable for the formation of thin barrier layers between the low-k dielectric and copper interconnect, technical and economic benefits of using chemical vapor deposition (CVD) [1], electrolytic plating [2], and electroless plating [3] processes for build up of the copper interconnects make these approaches attractive alternatives. Electrochemical deposition of copper is relatively inexpensive compared to vapor deposition methods but suffers from the fact that the barrier layers, typically titanium or tantalum based metals or metal nitrides, are difficult to electrochemically activate and plate with adherent copper. In fact, in the primary electrolytic copper metals industry, titanium is employed as a re-usable cathode material because the copper is easily removed from the titanium surface after plating. Therefore, it is necessary to deposit adherent, thin seed layers of copper onto the barrier layer prior to deposition of thicker copper films by electrochemical methods. Although PVD and CVD copper seed layers can be used to fabricate electroplated copper interconnects, an electrochemical process for depositing copper seed layers and interconnects has many benefits, including lower cost of ownership. simplified processing parameters, and the ability to scale with increasing wafer size [4].

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Traditional electrochemical deposition of metal films and coatings utilizes aqueous electrolytes. A novel process for depositing metals from organic solutions based on cementation exchange reactions has been demonstrated for a number of metal/metal ion systems, including Au on Zn and Pb on Fe [5,6]. Most of the previous work on electrochemical deposition of metals from organic solutions has focused on copper deposition onto sputtered aluminum thin films [7]. In general, the cementation exchange reaction is based on the dissolution of a less noble metal substrate material (M_2) into the organic solution $(R-M_{x \text{ (org)}})$ while simultaneously depositing more noble metal atoms (M_1) onto the surface of the substrate [5]:

$$\overline{R - M_{1(org)}^{+}} + M_{2(s)} = \overline{R - M_{2(org)}^{+}} + M_{1(s)}$$
(1)

An inherent characteristic of the process is high selectivity of the depositing atoms as the cementation exchange reaction occurs only at the surface of electrochemically active, less noble cathodic sites and not on insulating or dielectric materials. In contrast, standard palladium activation from aqueous stannous chloride/palladium solutions that catalyze electroless copper deposition can be used on both conducting (metal) and non-conducting (polymer) surfaces since it is not selective to the underlying substrate material.

In this study, we report for the first time the use of organic solution deposition of copper onto barrier metals such as Ti, TiN and Ta, for example

$$\overline{R - Cu^{2+}_{(org)}} + Ti_{(s)} = \overline{R - Ti^{2+}_{(org)}} + Cu_{(s)}$$
(2)

in which adherent Cu seed layers are deposited onto sputter deposited barrier metal films. To demonstrate the feasibility of the seed layers with subsequent electrochemical copper deposition, standard electroless and electrolytic copper plating solutions were used to build up 0.1µm to 1.0µm thick copper layers on the barrier films after deposition of the catalytic seed layers.

4.3 Experiment

Deposition of Ti, TiN and Ta barrier films onto Si or SiO_2 wafer substrates was done using a Denton Vacuum Discovery 18 dc magnetron sputtering system with a base vacuum of 1.4×10^{-6} Pa. The pressure in the chamber was held constant at ~0.53 Pa during deposition and the forward power was fixed at 300W. Titanium and tantalum films were deposited using argon gas while the TiN was reactively deposited using an Ar/N_2 mixture. A water cooled substrate holder was used without external heating for all of the depositions. Film thickness was varied from 50nm to 1000nm. Patterning of 100nm Ti films was accomplished by contact lithography. Polyimide dielectric which was spin coated, exposed and cured over the patterned Ti lines and bond pads was left on the substrates during subsequent electrochemical plating operations.

Copper seed layer deposition onto the barrier metal films was done for less than one minute using organic solutions in which the copper ion concentration was < 1 g/L. Subsequent electroless copper deposition was accomplished using a formaldehyde based aqueous formulation of 10-15 g/L copper sulfate (CuSO₄-5H₂O), 40 g/L Na2EDTA (ethylenediamaine tetra-acetate), 10-15 g/L formaldehyde, 12 g/L NaOH to pH of 12.5, 65°C bath temperature for 10 minutes. A copper plating bath consisting of 180 g/L copper sulfate (CuSO₄-5H₂O), 65 g/L H₂SO₄, 60 parts per million chloride, and brightener and leveler additives at 35°C was used to deposit electrolytic films at a current density of 25 mA/cm² for 5 minutes.

Analysis of the deposited films was done using two different scanning electron microscopes. A Hitachi S4700 field emission microscope and a FEI Dual Beam 620 focused ion beam (FIB) microscope were used to image and conduct chemical analysis of broadface and cross-sectional samples after deposition.

4.4 Results

Attempts to directly deposit copper onto the different barrier me tals using only the electroless and electrolytic copper plating baths were unsuccessful. In all cases, either no copper plated on the surface or the copper film that did plate on the surface was not adherent. This result was expected since Ti and Ta surfaces are normally not receptive to deposition of adherent copper films by electrochemical plating operations without special surface preparation. Results from organic solution treated barrier metal films will be presented by the type of barrier film.

Ti Films

In this study preliminary investigations on organic solution deposited copper onto barrier films has focused on sputter deposited titanium. Although not normally used as a barrier film, Ti is often used as an adhesion and/or protection layer for metallic films such as aluminum and TiN. For the purposes of this study, it served the role of a reproducible, model surface for conducting organic solution deposition experiments.

Depicted in Fig. 4.4.1a and 4.4.1b are broadface scanning electron microscope (SEM) micrographs of organic solution deposited copper particles on the surface of a 1000nm thick Ti film. The light or white particles in Fig. 4.4.1 are the deposited copper. As can be seen in Fig. 4.4.1a, the distribution of sub-micrometer size copper particles on the surface of the Ti is fairly uniform. Fig. 4.4.1b is a higher magnification of the same sample in which the largest copper particle is approximately 400nm in diameter with a typical copper particle size of <100nm. Adherence tape testing of the seed layers after organic solution deposition indicated that the copper particles could not be removed from the titanium. Chemical characterization of the large particles by energy dispersive x-ray analysis indicated only a copper signal.

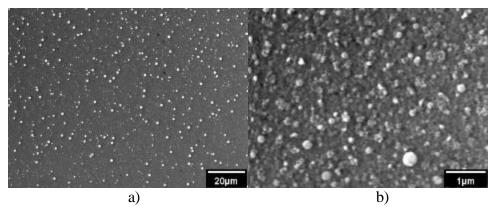


Figure 4.4.1. Broadface micrographs of organic solution copper particles on titanium: a) low magnification, b) high magnification. The white or bright areas are the copper particles.

After deposition of the copper seed layers from organic solutions, the Ti barrier film samples were subjected to electroless and electrolytic plating. Depicted in Fig. 4.4.2a is a broadface SEM micrograph after organic seed layer and electroless copper deposition while Fig. 4.4.2b is after organic seed layer and electrolytic copper plating. Both organic solution seed layer/aqueous electrochemical copper samples passed qualitative adherence testing of the samples using standard scotch tape.

As presented in equation (2), an inherent part of the process is dissolution of the barrier film into the organic solution. Lack of uniformity or preferential attack of the barrier film is undesirable from a reliability standpoint. Figs. 4.4.3a and 4.4.3b are cross-sectional micrographs from a 1000nm thick Ti film sample after a three step copper deposition process: first, organic copper seed layer, then electroless copper deposition, and finally electrolytic copper deposition. Fig. 4.4.3a is the sample after cleaving the wafer while Fig. 4.4.3b is a similar sample that was ion milled in the FIB microscope. Both figures demonstrate that a continuous, void free copper film was electrochemically deposited on the sputter deposited Ti film. Examination of similar samples prepared on 100nm thick Ti films gave the same results in that adherent, void free copper was deposited on the barrier film without appreciable or non-uniform removal of the Ti layer.

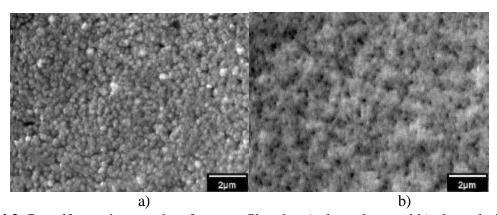


Figure 4.4.2. Broadface micrographs of copper films by a) electroless and b) electrolytic plating on top of organic solution copper seeded titanium.

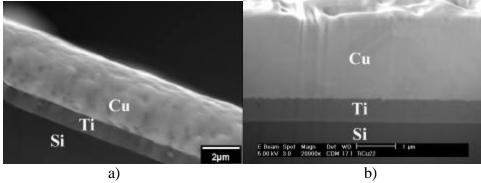


Figure 4.4.3. Cross sectional micrographs of a) cleaved and b) focus ion beam milled, electrochemically deposited copper on sputter deposited titanium.

The previous Ti barrier film results were on unpatterned wafers. As mentioned in the introduction, the process is inherently area selective in that deposition should only occur on electrochemically active, less noble metal surfaces. Patterned Ti films on Si/SiO_2 wafers with polyimide as the dielectric were subjected to a copper bearing organic solution and then an electroless copper plating bath. Shown in Fig. 4.4.4a is a section of the wafer before exposure to the electrochemical deposition solutions while Fig. 4.4.4b is the same area of the wafer after copper deposition. Although difficult to show without a color micrograph, copper was deposited on top of all of the exposed Ti in Fig. 4.4.4b. No copper was deposited on the polyimide. Similar experiments that used dielectrics such as Si_8N_4 and benzocyclobutene (BCB) had comparable results: copper deposited only on the exposed metal and not on the dielectric.

Preliminary results using Pd loaded organic solutions, in place of the copper loaded organic solutions, have paralleled the copper seed layer experiments on titanium. After organic Pd seed layer processing the Ti surface could be selectively plated with electroless copper.

TiN Films

Attempts to produce copper seed layers on the surface of 50nm to 100nm thick TiN layers have been dependent on the structure, phase and nitrogen content of the TiN. Adjustments to the chemical composition of the organic solution have been required in order to use Cu or Pd to activate the TiN surface for subsequent electroless or electrolytic copper plating. Preliminary analysis of the surface of the TiN after organic solution copper deposition indicates the surface is devoid of any distinguishing features showing copper nuclei (Fig. 4.4.5a) but that after electroless copper deposition the film surface appears similar to the Ti samples (Fig. 4.4.5b). The electroless copper is essentially void free and adherent to the underlying substrate.

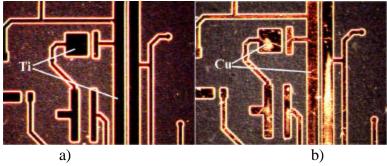


Figure 4.4.4. Optical micrographs of patterned titanium/polyimide samples a) as processed and b) after organic solution plus electroless copper deposition.

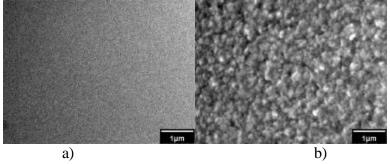


Figure 4.4.5. Broadface micrographs of sputter deposited TiN after a) copper bearing organic solution processing and b) after subsequent electroless copper deposition.

Ta Films

Work has only recently been started using metal bearing organic solutions to deposit seed layers on Ta and Ta(N) barrier films. Initial screening tests indicate that the process is feasible but the passivity of the tantalum films is much more tenacious than titanium films, requiring a more aggressive media to remove the surface oxide layer. However, non-uniform seed layers have been deposited and subsequently plated with electroless copper in localized areas. Studies to improve deposition uniformity and adherence have been initiated.

4.5 Conclusions

A spontaneous, electrochemically driven process for activating the surface of Ti, TiN and Ta barrier films for subsequent electroless and electrolytic copper plating processes has been demonstrated. Organic based solutions with dissolved copper were used to activate and catalyze the surface of the barrier metals which resulted in adherent copper seed layers compatible for use with standard electroless and electrolytic plating baths. Void free copper films with a final thickness of up to 1 µm were deposited onto the barrier films. Selective area deposition of organic solution and then electroless copper onto the exposed surface of patterned titanium/polyimide samples indicated that deposition occurred only on the metal and not the dielectric. Preliminary results using palladium loaded organic solutions indicated the feasibility of using alternative metal systems to activate the surface of barrier metals for subsequent electroless copper deposition.

Acknowledgments

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5. Properties of Sputtered Bilayer WN_x/W Diffusion Barriers between Si and Cu

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5.1 Abstract

Copper interconnect metallizations in next generation integrated circuits will require thin diffusion barrier layers (<20 nm) between the Cu and low-k dielectric which may also function as seed layers for subsequent material depositions. One possible structure entails a multicomponent diffusion barrier with a lower resistivity component, such as W on WN_x. In this study, sputtered WN_x/W bilayer thin films were investigated as diffusion barriers between Si and Cu. The total thickness of the WN_x/W bilayer was fixed at 20 nm while the WN_x thickness was varied from 0 to 20 nm. After deposition of the barrier films, a 100 nm thick Cu film was sputtered over the top of the a-W and amorphous WN_x bi-layer. The as-deposited WN_x/W film stress was found to be strongly dependent on the relative amount of WN_x and W present and the addition of a Cu overlayer was found to mitigate the stress levels. The WN_x/W barriers remained stable after 650 °C anneals and exhibited phase transformations to W₂N. Microstructural characterization using transmission electron microscopy and x-ray diffraction and chemical analysis by x-ray photoelectron spectroscopy of the films were used to identify the as-deposited and transformed phases.

5.2 Introduction

Several refractory metals and their nitrides are good candidate materials for Cu diffusion barriers in Si-based integrated circuits [1]. An optimal barrier layer should have a dense, amorphous microstructure, a smooth surface morphology, thermal stability with Cu and Si, low film stress and minimal thickness (10 to 20 nm) [2, 3]. Amorphous thin films are considered more effective diffusion barriers than polycrystalline thin films because of the lack of grain boundaries which function as fast diffusion paths [4]. Because of high temperature anneals used in the fabrication of semiconductor devices, the thermal stability of barrier films is an important consideration with respect to crystallinity and stress. W and WN_x have been studied individually as barrier layers, but their combination in thin bilayers is the subject of this study.

Tungsten nitride thin films have been shown to be stable at thicknesses less than 25 nm [5]. Fabrication methods for WN_x films include plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) [6-10], reactive sputter deposition [11-16] and metal-organic chemical vapor deposition [17].

The intrinsic stress of WN_x thin films has been addressed in only limited studies. Yu [18] measured a compressive stress range of \sim 1.75 to 3 GPa in 300 nm thick sputter deposited WN_x films deposited at 5 mTorr with N₂ partial flows from 0 to 40 %. Lee [6] studied stress relaxation in 300 nm thick PECVD WN_x/W bilayers by balancing W tensile stresses with WN_x compressive stresses. Shen [16] observed mostly compressive stresses in 150 nm thick WN_x

films sputter deposited at 6 and 25 mTorr and noted a stress dependency on total gas pressure as well as nitrogen partial pressure.

Recent research has shown WN_x to be an effective barrier to Cu diffusion, with most studies using sputter deposition to fabricate the barrier films. Suh [11] observed a 100 nm amorphous WN_x barrier to be stable up to 800°C and a 5 nm barrier to be stable to 600°C. Uekubo [5] observed a 25 nm polycrystalline W_2N was required to maintain barrier properties up to 790°C and an 8 nm W_2N up to 600°C. Pokela [10] reported stable 120 nm thick WN_x barriers up to 750°C. Ganguli [13] reported good barrier performance in tungsten-rich, amorphous PECVD 15 nm WN_x . A 60 nm thick W barrier layer showed good barrier properties up to 600°C [9].

In this paper the influence of bilayer component film thicknesses on the properties and Cu barrier performance of reactive sputter deposited WN_x/W films was investigated.

5.3 Experiment

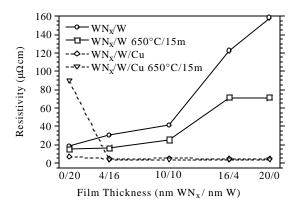
Tungsten and tungsten nitride thin films were deposited from a 99.95% pure W target using a Denton Vacuum Discovery 18 dc magnetron sputtering system with a base vacuum of 1.4 x 10⁻⁶ Pa. A mass flow regulated Ar-N₂ sputtering pressure of 0.53 Pa and 250 W forward power were held constant resulting in a nominal deposition rate of 0.3 nm/s. The N₂ partial flow rate (the ratio of the nitrogen flow rate to the total flow rate of nitrogen and argon) was fixed at 30% to produce the tungsten nitride film. Tungsten films were deposited in a 0.53 Pa Ar atmosphere with 250 W forward power. The WN_x film was selected based on a previous investigation of WN_x films [15] as a function of nitrogen content. The WN_x film has approximately 29 at. % nitrogen and exhibited a predominantly amorphous structure up to 400°C. Si (100) wafers of 75 mm diameter and holey carbon support films on 3 mm grids were used as substrate materials during the study. WN_x was selected as the first layer primarily because W is known to react with Si to form W₅Si₃ at approximately 600°C [5]. The total thickness of the WN_x/W bilayer was fixed at 20 nm while the WN_x thickness was varied from 0 to 20 nm. After deposition of the barrier films and without breaking vacuum, a 100 nm thick Cu film was sputter deposited over the WN_x/W bilayer. Cu films were deposited from a 99.99% pure Cu target in a 0.53 Pa Ar atmosphere with 250 W forward power. A water-cooled substrate holder was used without external heating for all of the depositions.

The intrinsic stress of the WN_x films was calculated using the wafer curvature technique and Stoney's equation. A laser reflectometry Flexus 2900 thin film stress system was used to measure the intrinsic stress of the as-deposited WN_x/W/Cu films on the Si substrates. Rapid thermal anneals of films were performed in an AG Associates Heatpulse 210 at 650°C for 15 min in flowing Ar-5%H₂ forming gas. X-ray diffraction (XRD) was done using a Rigaku D-MAX III thin film diffractometer with a fixed, low angle (5°) Cu Kα radiation source and a rotating sample holder. Morphology and crystal structure of WN_x/W/Cu films were examined by cross sectional transmission electron microscopy (TEM) using a Philips CM 200 at 200 kV. Film composition was determined with a Physical Electronics model 5700 Auger electron spectroscopy (AES) system. A 1mm x 1mm rastered 3 keV Ar⁺ ion beam was used to sputter through the Cu/W/WN_x film structures until the Si substrate was exposed, resulting in a crater. A 5 keV electron beam was then used to examine the composition at several points along the sloping crater wall, corresponding to different depths within the film structure, with AES [19].

5.4 Results

Resistivity

Figure 5.4.1 shows the resistivity of 20 nm WN_x/W bilayer films. The individual WN_x film resistivity was 158 μ ? cm and the W film was 18 μ ? cm. Bilayer W/WN_x films displayed resistivities between these values, attributed to indentation of the four-point probe tips and preferential measurement of surface material resistivity. Anneals at 650°C yielded lower WN_x/W resistivities attributed to elimination of defects and phase transformation to polycrystalline W_2N . As deposited WN_x/W films with Cu overlayers had resistivities < 5 μ ? cm. Following 650°C anneals of $Cu/W/WN_x/Si$ samples, the multilayer resistivities maintained < 5 μ ? cm except for the Cu/W/Si sample, which increased to 89 μ ? cm due to the formation of Cu_3Si .



$\begin{array}{c} Film \\ (nm\ WN_x/\ nm\ W) \\ /\ 100\ nm\ Cu \end{array}$	As- deposited	650°C/ 15 min. annealed
0/20	Cu, a-W	a-W, Cu ₃ Si
4/16	Cu, a-W	Cu, a-W
10/10	Cu, a-W	Cu, a-W, W ₂ N
16/4	Cu , a - WN_x	$Cu, W_2N, a-W$
20/0	Cu, a-WN _x	Cu, W ₂ N, a-W

Figure 5.4.1 Resistivity of WN_x/W and WN_x/W/Cu films, as-deposited and after 650°C anneals.

Table 5.4.1 Crystal structure of $WN_x/W/Cu$ films as-deposited and after 650°C anneal for 15 min. (a- WN_x , amorphous WN_x)

XRD and **TEM**

Cu reflections with a (111) preferred orientation were observed in all as-deposited samples. Figure 5.4.2 shows x-ray diffraction scans from selected bilayer samples. The underlying diffusion barrier structure was evident as a-W in samples with > 10 nm of W and amorphous WN_x in samples with 16 and 20 nm of WN_x. Reflections from W and WN_x component layers < 10 nm thick were typically not visible in the x-ray scans. Table 5.4.1 shows the WN_x/W/Cu crystal structures observed in the as-deposited state and after 650°C anneals for 15 min. Following 650°C anneals, the W-only barrier was shown to be ineffective in stopping Cu diffusion as indicated by Cu₃Si formation. Cu reflections were observed in all samples except the W-only barrier as shown in Figure 5.4.3. WN_x/W bilayer and WN_x-only barriers showed no evidence of copper silicides or tungsten silicides. The amorphous WN_x transformed to W₂N in an amount proportional to the WN_x component. Some conversion of WN_x to α -W due to annealing was also observed (studied extensively by Lin [7, 20]).

Cross sectional TEM analysis confirmed the stability of WN_x/W bilayers. Figure 5.4.4 shows the microstructure of a 4 nm WN_x/ 16 nm W/ 100 nm Cu sample after a 650°C anneal. The barrier is continuous with no evidence of diffusion across the WN_x/W bilayer. A 2 nm thick reaction product is apparent at the WN_x/Si interface. W₅Si₃ was observed by XRD at a W/Si

interface after 650°C anneals in another study [5]. The interfacial phase in the current investigation is likely W₅Si₃, but insufficient amounts are present to appear in XRD scans.

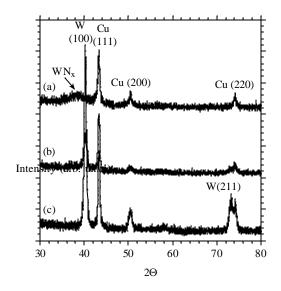


Figure 5.4.2 X-ray diffraction profiles for selected as-deposited films: a) 20 nm $WN_x/100$ nm Cu, b) 10 nm $WN_x/10$ nm W/ 100 nm Cu and c) 20 nm W/ 100 nm Cu.

Figure 5.4.3 X-ray diffraction profiles for selected 650°C annealed films: a) 20 nm $WN_x/100$ nm Cu, b) 10 nm $WN_x/10$ nm W/ 100 nm Cu and c) 20 nm W/ 100 nm Cu.

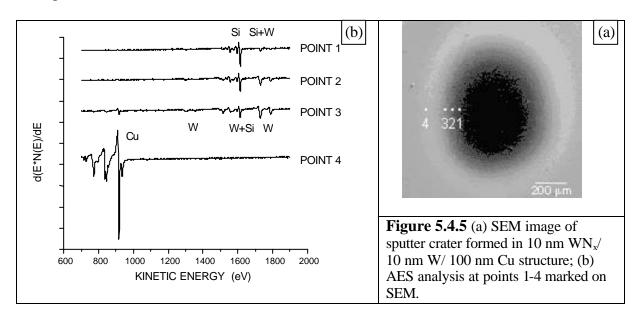
AES

Two WN $_x$ /W/Cu films annealed at 650°C were analyzed by taking AES measurements along part of the crater wall after sputtering with Ar $^+$. The films examined were 10 nm WN $_x$ / 10 nm W/ 100 nm Cu and 16 nm WN $_x$ / 4 nm W/ 100 nm Cu, and the results from 10 nm WN $_x$ / 10 nm W/ 100 nm Cu are shown in Figure 5.4.5. Figure 5.4.5(a) shows a scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of a crater after sputtering through the Cu, W, and WN $_x$ layers. The exposed Si substrate is the central, dark region. Auger spectra were acquired at several points along the crater wall, and those acquired at points marked 1, 2, 3, and 4 in the SEM image are plotted in Figure 5.4.5(b). Scan 1, taken near the inner edge of the crater wall, shows mainly Si with a smaller amount of W (the main, high energy Si and W peaks have similar sensitivity factors). No Cu was detected at point 1 (the Cu detection limit for conditions used here was less than 1 atomic %). Points 2 and 3 were taken further up the crater wall and show increasing W. Note the presence of Cu (about 5 atomic %) at point 3. Point 4 was taken on the sputtered Cu. Similar results were obtained from the other sample. These AES results confirm the XRD results showing the effectiveness of the WN $_x$ /W in preventing Cu diffusion into the Si.

Stress

The as-deposited average film stress in WN_x/W bilayer films (Figure 5.4.6) was tensile in films without WN_x and became compressive with increasing WN_x thickness component. A substantial 4 GPa range in film stress was measured in the studied WN_x/W films. Compressive stresses in WN_x are generated by N atom incorporation in the W lattice that collapses into an amorphous structure. The tensile W stresses and compressive WN_x stresses are consistent with another investigation [6].

 WN_x/W bilayer films with a sputter deposited 100 nm Cu overlayer displayed a notable moderation in stress, tensile and compressive. For comparison, the stress of a 100 nm Cu film was 150 MPa. One possibility for the reduction in stress may be the domination of the thicker Cu over the thinner WN_x/W layer. Also, Flexus calculations are more accurate for thicker films. Anneals at 650°C generated a 800 MPa tensile stress increase in $WN_x/W/Cu$ films attributed to tungsten nitride phase transformations, annihilation of defects, and grain growth. An exception to the post-anneal tensile stress increase occurred in the W/Cu film due to Cu_3Si formation.



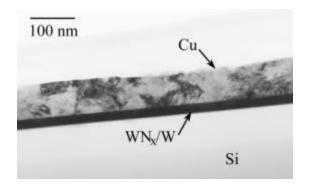


Figure 5.4.4 Cross sectional TEM image of 650° C annealed 4 nm WN_x/ 16 nm W/ 100 nm Cu.

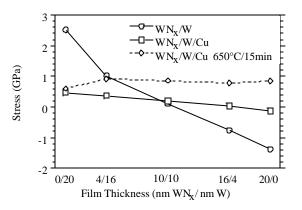


Figure 5.4.6 Average stress of WN_x/W and WN_x/W/Cu films, as-deposited and after 650°C anneals.

5.5 Conclusions

Bilayer WN_x/W thin films were found to be stable diffusion barriers at the annealing temperature of 650°C as determined by X-ray diffraction, AES measurements and cross sectional TEM. Resistivities of the bilayer WN_x/W thin films were between that of W (18 μ ? cm) and WN_x (158 μ ?cm) component films. Anneals at 650°C caused the amorphous WN_x component to transform to W_2N and a-W. Individual W film stress was highly tensile and WN_x exhibited high compressive stress while the stress of bilayer WN_x/W films fell in between. The addition of a Cu overlayer film helped mitigate the tensile and compressive $WN_x/W/Cu$ stresses while post deposition anneals of the samples resulted in a tensile stress increase.

Acknowledgments

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